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THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

I.

RUSSIA has shown how a great country can, in twenty years, recover from a defeat. Like Prussia after Jena, she has learned the hard lesson of the battle-field. She has recuperated, says one; yes, but the time of her recuperation has not been lost in sluggishness or in purposeless gropings; it has, on the contrary, been a period of radical reform and complete renovation. In 1854 Russia had not in reality been conquered, since, after two years of the greatest efforts, the Allies had succeeded in taking only one city, situated at the extreme end of her territory. Her boundaries had not, strictly speaking, been broken, for the enemy did not dare to penetrate into the heart of the country. The empire was nevertheless exhausted, and concluded a peace because of lack of means for continuing the war. The Russian government made itself fully cognizant of the principal causes of their failure. Those causes were three in number; the lack of means of rapid communication, the inadequate development of the productive forces of the country, and the lack of knowledge among the people. If Russia in 1853 had had railroads, the Allies would never have ventured into the Crimea, and, on the other hand, if her natural resources had been developed by a free and

enlightened population like that of the West, she would have been able for a long time to defy the attacks of France and England. It is for the purpose of removing these causes of weakness that Russia has for twenty years worked so persistently and intelligently.

Several years ago the government seriously entered upon the arduous task of extending education to all classes of society. That is, in my view, the essential thing. That which above all else renders labor productive, is the application to it of scientific knowledge.

The first attempts of the government to diffuse knowledge date from the reign of Peter the Great. That royal reformer had already, in Holland, seen the good fruits of fine schools. In 1714 he founded "arithmetical schools," which persons of the higher classes were obliged to attend. In 1715 and 1719 more severe edicts were promulgated; all except the nobility were obliged to attend school. These excellent measures, instead of being received with favor, raised the most violent opposition. Petitions were sent, demanding the suppression of the schools as dangerous. In 1744 it was found that none of the burghers frequented them, and when special schools were founded for the nobility and clergy, they were completely deserted.

In 1755 Catherine II ordered the foundation of schools in cities and villages. She wished the expense of education to be as small as possible, that the children of peasants might receive instruction, but unfortunately, the ukase remained a dead letter; everything was wanting—teachers, buildings, money, books. Since then various efforts have been made, but they have had little result. After freeing the serfs, the Emperor Alexander II recognized the fact that the indispensable complement of that reform was a thorough organization of popular instruction. A commission was appointed in 1861 to draw up the scheme of a law, which was presented to the emperor the following year. It contained some excellent provisions, which were finally embodied in the law of 1864.

The difficulties of a system of popular instruction in Russia are enormous; they arise principally from the sparseness and poverty of the population outside the cities.

It is without doubt impossible to think of immediately introducing in Russia the scholastic institutions of western countries; but there is a country where the same difficulties, and even greater ones, exist, than in the Russian empire, where nevertheless education is as generally disseminated as in Switzerland, Germany or Denmark: that is Norway. In Norway the population is even more scattered than in Russia. The country is divided into deep valleys and high, uninhabitable plateau, the climate is fully as severe and the storms as frequent. Nevertheless all the Norwegians know at least how to read and write, and the peasants generally are well instructed. How have these results been obtained? By means of itinerant teachers. A schoolmaster travels through a district, stopping successively at each hamlet. He stays at one of the farm-houses and instructs the children of the neighborhood. After he has left, the mother, who knows how to read, makes the children repeat what they have learned, and prepares them for a new lesson upon the return of the teacher. In 1840 there were in Norway 7,133 of these schools, and only 222 fixed schools: in 1866 there were only 2,345 of the former, but 3,999 of the latter.

Russia should follow the example of Norway, and begin with itinerant teachers. The pedler already plays a part of considerable importance in Russian rural life; he carries with him foreign goods and news. He represents at the same time commerce and the press. The traveling schoolmaster would be the colporter of civilization. Education would be carried to the house, and the influence exerted by the instructor upon the parents and upon the villages at which he might stay, could not fail of being happy and profound. It would be well, too, to apply in Russia the idea recently adopted in England, of proportioning salaries to the results accomplished.

The Emperor Alexander appears to be convinced of the necessity for energetic action, but for that much money is required. In a recent communication to the Minister of Public Instruction he insists in strong terms upon the importance of guaranteeing, by a vigilant watch, the principles of faith, morality and civil duties, in the numerous schools

founded with a view of meeting the demands of the times. He says that to maintain public education in a spirit of religion and morality, is a duty which devolves not only upon the clergy, but upon all educated people, and especially upon the Russian nobility, which is called to constitute itself the guardian of the public schools, by preserving them from dangerous and corrupt influences. As might easily be surmised the nobility and clergy could accomplish nothing without large subsidies. In 1870 Count Tolstoi asked for 200,000 roubles for the primary schools, but obtained only 100,000. (A rouble is worth about eighty cents in gold.) It should however be added that the subsidies have recently been largely increased. The amount expended for primary schools in 1871 amounted to 2,742,008 roubles. The annual subsidy granted by the State, formerly 100,000 roubles, has, in a few years, reached more than six times that amount. The report of the Minister of Public Instruction, published in 1871, states that the law of 1864 was not generally enforced. Incomplete reports had been received from only fourteen out of thirty-four provinces where provincial councils had been established. In these fourteen provinces, the most populous and civilized in Slavonic Russia, with a population of 20,425,294 inhabitants, there were, in January, 1870, about 4,247 schools with 4,982 teachers, of whom 3,516 were priests, and 143,385 pupils. That is, 1 pupil to 142 inhabitants. In Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Saxony and in the Protestant cantons of Switzerland, the proportion is 1 pupil to 6 inhabitants. In the country, the report says, the teachers are few and badly paid. The few schools which are in operation are held in unsuitable places. These insufficient accommodations, combined with the lack of good teachers, have engendered a distrust in regard to education which has not rarely resulted in closing the schools. In 1871, in the district of Tsaritsine, there was not one school open; the old schools which had existed there had been closed, and the buildings sold that they might be torn down. This is deplorable, but it is explained by the slender resources of the schools. The annual cost of carrying on country schools is about 250 roubles each, but they receive only 142 roubles.

It is difficult to tell the exact number of primary schools; there appear to be no complete official statistics. The report of 1872 places the number in European Russia at 24,000, with an attendance of 875,000 pupils. These numbers appear large, but they are insignificant when compared with the population, which amounts to about 65,000,000.

The government comprehends that, in improving primary instruction, the principal point is to have a sufficient number of good teachers, and has consequently increased the number of normal schools. There were fifteen of these institutions at the beginning of 1871. During that year ten new ones were opened, and it was decided to found eight others, so that in one year the number was more than doubled. In January, 1873, there were forty-one training schools for teachers. In addition to this a normal course has been added to the schools of eighteen different districts, the expenses of which are paid by the local authorities. All this is undoubtedly insufficient, but it is encouraging to note the rivalry between the general and provincial governments in advancing such an important object.

Teachers' Institutes, which have accomplished so much in the United States, have also been introduced into Russia. They are held by experienced teachers, and the expenses are paid by the provincial authorities. These institutes were held in forty-seven different localities in 1872, and exercised, says the Minister of Public Instruction, the most beneficial influence.—*Revue des Deux Mondes*.

TEACHERS come back from their Summer vacation with a fresh supply of health, which past experience has taught them will be gone at the end of the school year. The insufficient ventilation of the school-room and the hard work sicken them both bodily and mentally. They often have only themselves to blame for this. Daily exercise in the open air will help to resist the injurious influences of the school-room, and, if the brain is tired, a good novel will do much towards resting it. The remedies are simple and easily procured.

NEWSPAPERS IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

M^{R.} UNDERWOOD in his essay on English Literature and its place in popular education, read before the National Teachers' Association at Boston, recommends that the "profitless reading of scrap-books" be abolished in our schools, and that each day's reading be given, in turn, to some branch of natural science, to history, to literature. "The elements of good reading," continues he, "are few and simple; and these can be attended to *as incidents*." Training in elocution "will come naturally, under the skillful teacher's care."

These remarks are worthy of consideration. There should be no misconception, however, as to the importance of "good reading." If elocutionary training is to be an incidental part of class instruction, it is nevertheless to be an important consideration.

The idea of using Newspapers as reading books grew out of the conviction, first, that one of the most important things to be taught was the art of acquiring ideas from what was read; and, secondly, that the ideas in the editorials, literary criticisms and correspondence of our best newspapers were such as were very desirable for pupils to be familiar with. It was thought that the above might be accomplished, and at the same time, the elements of good reading, "the cultivation of natural and proper tones, the adaptation of manner to style" be fully taught. At this time also, there was being delivered in our school a series of lectures on Current History, and the use of newspapers, in the way indicated, was expected to arouse an additional interest in this very suggestive and important subject.

Long previous to the use of newspapers in the reading class, I had put forth much effort to secure the object previously mentioned, namely, that the pupil should learn to acquire, and make his own, all the information intended to be conveyed in the article he was reading. Prof. Seeley, the noted author of "*Ecce Homo*," in urging the more faithful and systematic study of English, refers to the fact

that exact knowledge of the meanings of English words is far from being common; and that large numbers of readers do not merely fail to understand their author, but totally misunderstand him, and suppose him to say something which he does not say. To avoid such results, the selection for the reading class being always from one of the best English writers, and the pupils, having been somewhat informed as to the personal history and general merits of the author, they were expected to thoroughly acquaint themselves with his spirit, method, and ideas, so far as shown forth in the piece selected. The recitation was preceded by a thorough examination and explanation of the thoughts, sentiments, figures and forms of expression in general. The exact rendering of the meaning not only of separate words, but of phrases and sentences, was required. Paraphrasing, turning figurative language into plain, poetry into prose, were frequently part of the work preparatory to reading.

In examining the class as to their understanding of the subject matter of the reading exercise, and instructing them as to its teaching, I was led to appreciate the great beauty of the method of mental analysis so fully exemplified in the "Record of Mr. Alcott's School," by Miss Peabody. It had been the warning of the accomplished literary editor of *The Tribune* that no teacher should adopt Mr. Alcott's method of dealing with the minds and spiritual nature of children without the utmost caution, without fear and trembling. His method was merely imitated in an attempt to make, so far as was possible, the highest sentiments of the writer, his spiritual emotions and delicate sympathies, a part of the pupil's mental experience. This thorough preparation for reading, this complete understanding and comprehension of thought and method of expression was found to secure in a very satisfactory degree good delivery, "natural and proper tones, the adaptation of manner to style."

This method of teaching reading was but slightly altered during the short portion of the school year that newspapers were used. Occasionally it was found to be very hard work for pupils to prepare in the above manner, for the

reading recitation, an editorial of the *New York Tribune*. A close examination into its meaning would sometimes require an inquiry into the nature of governmental administration quite foreign to the usual order of thought in school life. A reference to party history would cause much confusion of thought to minds not familiar with the political history of our country. Several considerations were suggested by a few weeks' experience. There was brought to mind the published grievance of the man in one of our Western States who justly complained, when, after sending his son to school each winter for twelve years, the young man was found unable to understandingly read the daily newspaper. Nor is this accomplishment so easy of attainment or so unimportant as may be imagined. Our common schools generally, do not as yet turn out students so capable. To understandingly read many of the leading editorials of our best newspapers, be they political, satirical, historical or financial, implies a degree and kind of knowledge too often neglected in the school room, but which, in a practical point of view, is of great importance. If it is worth while to teach Reading at all, it should certainly end in the pupil's being able to intelligently deal with current literature. And it is this necessity for being able to understandingly peruse the daily newspaper that I would take to be the chief reason for using newspapers as reading books during a portion of each school year.

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ANY business house can bear testimony to the mistakes and losses caused by inaccuracy in letter writing. Letters containing money are sent without any name or address, and sometimes the orders they contain are so badly expressed, that it is impossible to understand them. Persons writing business letters should never take it for granted that their address is known. The only safe way is to write it out in full each time. Teachers would do well to impress this upon children, and to remember it themselves.

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN SCHOOLS.

IT has occurred to me that I could not better occupy the time you have so kindly granted, than in reviewing the claims of English Literature to a prominent place among the studies of our high-schools and colleges. It is but a few years since these claims were first advocated, but they have won their way with astonishing success in some parts of this country, and especially in England. Among recent writers on this subject, in the mother country, is the distinguished author of *Ecce Homo*, professor of History in Cambridge University. He maintains that in all the middle class schools at least one-third of the time should be devoted to the critical study of standard English authors.

Here let me say that the plan is not to study *manuals* of English Literature, as is commonly done in this country: but to have the pupils read for themselves the masterpieces of great authors. These manuals, of which we have a dozen or more, are to the young student for the most part dry, and filled with bewildering details. Who would confine himself to written descriptions of foreign countries, if he could just as easily visit these lands for himself, and see with his own eyes their wonders and beauties? Why should our pupils read *about* great authors, rather than the authors themselves? By the best teachers the manual is made to occupy a subordinate place. It is but a *guide book* to direct us to points of interest, but by no means to take the place of eyes.

Now, what are the superior advantages of this class of studies? Professional men are well aware, that a certain acquaintance with literature is indispensable to their success. The lawyer, teacher, editor or clergyman, who would develop his utmost powers and exert the widest influence, must drink deeply at the fountain of English classics. The most successful teacher of homiletics in the country, one who awakens the love and moulds the character of his pupils as but few instructors are privileged to do—I mean Prof. Phelps of Andover—esteems the study of literature so important, that he devotes one-third of his lectures to its consideration.

The object in this study of literature is not so much knowledge as *culture*; and by culture, as opposed to knowledge, I mean the quickening of the imagination, the refinement of the tastes, the kindling of sentiments—in short, the development of those noble qualities of the mind, which most widely distinguish man from the brute.

When one has visited Niagara, he carries away something more than items of information in regard to the falls. He has stood before an exhibition of stupendous power, a vision of sublimity, which like a new revelation will never cease to mould and impress the soul. So after an appreciative reading of Milton, after following the mighty lead of his imagination through lurid horrors and dazzling glories, we are not what we were before. We have strengthened our powers of thought by apprehending a new world of grandeur; we have expanded our capacities of feeling by a sympathetic appreciation of the noble yearnings and the subdued passions of this Titan's heart.

And this highest culture of the mind is to be acquired *in no other way* than by a familiar acquaintance with great authors. It is a well known fact that ease of manners, and the graceful urbanity of social intercourse, can be attained only by long association with the refined. So it is in the higher sphere of mental culture. Versatility of thought, depth and wealth of imagination, delicacy of taste, nobleness of sentiment, are qualities too subtle to be taught by rules. They are to be caught only by *imitation*, by dwelling in the company of those who are eminent for these qualities, breathing their atmosphere, entering into their thoughts and feelings, becoming familiar with their methods.

There has been a great deal of idle controversy between the champions of literary and of scientific culture. Their claims should not be made to conflict with each other; both are needed, if we would secure the highest cultivation of the mind. Science opens our eyes to the wonderful mechanism of the world around us. It shows us something of the infinite beauty and order, which a divine workman has fashioned; and surely this knowledge is worth possessing for its own sake. It makes man truly the lord of the whole creation below him, for science is the mother of the indus-

trial arts. The disciplinary value of its study cannot be dispensed with. It sharpens the intellect, develops precision of statement, trains the mind to logical methods of thought. I think it is desirable that every well educated man should be an amateur of some particular science, such as geology, botany or natural history. It would be an interesting diversion to keep pace with the progress of the science, and to become familiar with its practical, out-door details. The mind will thus be accustomed to scientific processes of reasoning, and trained to accuracy of observation.

But besides the macrocosm without, there is the microcosm within, which claims our study. Within the brain of man there is a world of ideas and activities and passions not less wonderful than the outer world of nature, not less worthy of his knowledge. Scientific culture is restricted almost wholly to the *intellect*. It quickens but indirectly and feebly the emotional nature, the higher reason, the affections. This is strikingly illustrated in the fact that the exclusive devotees of science are so often materialists and atheistic. Not that science is directly antagonistic to religion and a spiritual philosophy; but overshadows them, as a large tree might a garden of flowers.

But on the other hand, literary culture affects the entire soul. For in every production which deserves to rank as literature, the whole man speaks. In every part it bears the impress of the author's unique individuality. It is not a dry product of the logical understanding, but a child of the heart, conceived and brought forth in the glowing agitation of a master spirit. Such are the works which men will not willingly let die; for age cannot wither them, nor custom stale their infinite variety. Coming from the depths of the soul, they speak to the soul of the reader. They suggest "truths that wake to perish never;" they enkindle by contagion noble sentiments and aspirations; they reveal all the intricate windings of human longings and passions; they develop an appreciation of all that is beautiful and good. De Quincey tells us "let every one be assured that he owes to the impassioned books which he has read, many a thousand more of emotions, than he can consciously trace back

to them. Dim by their origination, these emotions yet arise in him, and mould him through life like the forgotten incidents of childhood." The Scotch significantly term literature and kindred studies, "the humanities;" implying that it is chiefly by these pursuits that the most distinctively human qualities are developed.

For the great majority of men, this culture is to be obtained only by the study of the literature *in their native tongue*. A universal acquaintance with the masterpieces of genius in all languages and of all times would indeed constitute the highest form of human culture. The literature of each nation has a character of its own. Each mind of the highest order has a peculiar individuality. He who in addition to his acquaintance with his native literature, can thoroughly appreciate those of Greece and Rome, of Italy and France and Germany, is like a traveler who has seen not only his native land, but the natural beauties and historic monuments of the world. But this cosmopolitan acquaintance with literature is possible only to a favored few. It requires a life of leisure, rare powers of acquisition, many years of hard toil. All honor to the Lowells and the Arnolds, who by the happy conjunction of all favorable circumstances have achieved this stupendous task, and stand on the heights of human learning.

Ordinary men, even professional men, must look chiefly to the literature in their own language for this culture. But English-speaking people have no great cause for complaint in this. For theirs is a literature unequalled in its variety and extent. Only that of Greece can compare with it. Its brilliant origin lies far back in the Middle Age, and it reaches onward through five centuries of the most eventful history of the world. It represents widely different eras of civilization,—the chivalry and romance of the age of Chaucer, the youthful exuberance of the age of Shakespear, the patriotic and religious enthusiasm of Milton's age, the classic elegance of Pope and Addison, the intense energy and versatility of the present. In every department of prose and poetry we find works of genius. We have thus in our hands greater resources for this work of culture, than any nation or generation has ever before possessed.

This study of English literature, it is claimed, should be commenced in the school-room. In the education of pupils over twelve years of age, a large share of the time should be spent in the critical reading of the choicest productions of great authors. It would be necessary, of course, to begin with modern works, simple in style and easy of comprehension, such as "The Heroes" of Kingsley, or Johnson's "Rasselas." The older authors would come later, Milton, Shakespear, and perhaps Chaucer being reserved for the most advanced classes. Let it not be thought that pupils at this age would not sufficiently appreciate these great authors. The youth may not see in them all that the mature scholars see. But the same may be said of the histories and grammars, which you put into his hands. If the pupil use an edition with explanatory notes, such as those of the Clarendon Press series, if he prepare as faithfully for this recitation as for others, by repeated readings and the use of dictionaries, if the instructor himself be not wanting in appreciation and enthusiasm, the study will assuredly prove most interesting and successful. The experiment has been sufficiently tried to establish this point. How many boys there are below their teens, who without assistance pour over Plutarch's Lives, Pilgrim's Progress, or even Shakespear!

This further advantage will be gained, the formation of right tastes in reading. In these days almost everybody reads—reads volume after volume in quick succession from youth to old age. Books and newspapers are cheap and abound everywhere—at home, in the Sunday-school library, in the village club. But what time and energies are wasted by wrong tastes and unwise selections! What strides in mental growth would be made, if reading no more than we do, we but read *what* we should and *as* we should. It is regarded as fogysm to exclaim against novel-reading, but it was never more called for than at present.

The difficulty is that the natural tastes of men do not lead them to select the best books. A masterpiece calls for a mental effort which one is at first disinclined to put forth. Indolence of mind, fondness for flashy excitement, lead the untrained reader to select from books and papers that which

is comparatively worthless. But a judicious course of reading in school, under the guidance and inspiration of a master, will open the mind to an appreciation of the works of genius. The youth will acquire tastes and habits of reading, which will direct him through all his after life. Having once felt the charm there is in the companionship of the rarest spirits of his race, he will not desert them for the gossip of newspapers, or the legion of shallow volumes, which officious agents and enterprising publishers thrust upon his notice. His golden hours of leisure will bring him under the humanizing and educating power of great works of genius.—*Ezra Brainerd before the Vt. State Teachers' Association.*

HEBREW MUSIC.

I.

MUSIC and song have existed from the earliest epoch of the world's history. At the first dawn of creation, when the planets began to move in their celestial orbits, and the verdure and flowers covered and beautified the earth; with the whispering zephyrs and songs of birds, music breathed its first harmonious numbers. In the varied voices of nature, innumerable melodies arose in hymns of gratitude and praise to the Divine Architect, till in one commingled harmony swelled the grand and majestic chorus that proclaimed the birth of a universe.

Music is a universal language, and whether martial, sentimental or sacred, every heart acknowledges its beauty and power. It awakens the memory, touches the heart, and the soul is imbued with religious sentiment and feeling. The nobler sensations are called forth by its pleasing numbers, and in congregated assemblies it produces such harmony of thought and sentiment, that the souls of all pulsate in common unison.

Sacred history declares that music and song were employed among the Hebrews on occasions of solemnity, in both their domestic and religious life. Immense choirs, with their thousand voices, were retained in the Temple to

celebrate their feasts and victories, and a great number of books and treatises have been written, but with little satisfaction, upon the music of the Jews. It is not, however, uninteresting to follow out or trace the history of religious song, as found in the sacred record, the Bible, and to notice the musical solemnities of which it makes mention.

In the book of Genesis, chapter iv, verse 21, Jubal is named as being "the father of all such as handle the harp and organ," but not as the inventor of music, as many have supposed or declared.

Not until six hundred years after the deluge does the record again speak of music, which is at the time when Jacob is pursued by Laban (Genesis xxxi, v. 27), "wherefore didst thou flee away secretly, and steal away from me, and didst not tell me, that I might have sent thee away with mirth, and with songs, with tabret and with harp?"

Two hundred and forty-eight years after, at the passage of the Red Sea, the first religious song was entoned by Moses and the Hebrew people (Exodus, chap. xv, v. 1), "I will sing unto the Lord, for He hath triumphed gloriously, the horse and his rider hath he thrown into the sea."*

Again in Numbers, chap. x, v. 2, it speaks of trumpets, and the manner of blowing them on different occasions, as signals for assembling, departure or alarm. The SCHOFAR, a wind instrument made from the horn of a ram, is reserved for the celebration of the first day of TISCHRI (Numbers xxix, v. 1).

After the death of Moses, the sacred writings preserve entire silence upon the subject of Music, even to the time of the Judges, when, in chapter v, verse 1, is recorded the second song sung by Deborah and Barak: "Praise the Lord for the avenging of Israel," and a hundred years later occurred the sad and tragic death of the daughter of Jephthah. (Judges, chap. xi, v. 34.)

After this event, even to the time of Samuel, there is no musical record in the sacred writings. He instituted a school of Prophets, where song and music were, undoubtedly, an important branch of education. Pythagoras, a

* For the music of this song, see "THE ORIENTAL," page 31.

Grecian philosopher, who lived five hundred years before the coming of the Messiah, founded the same schools.

Under the reign of Saul, who was crowned king by Samuel, are recorded two circumstances of a musical character which are remarkable. Saul, after his coronation, encountered a troop of men, inspired by the Holy Spirit, prophesying to the sound of instruments. (See 1st Samuel x, v. 5, 6.) At their approach he is seized with a divine inspiration and prophesies with them. Subsequently becoming a prey to melancholy, he calls the youthful David to his side, who, by his pleasant address and inspired songs dissipated the dark torments that overshadowed his soul. (1st Samuel, chap. xvii, v. 23.)

Two thousand, eight hundred and ninety years from the creation, at the accession of David to the throne of Israel, music took on a new and grand existence. The royal poet consecrated his art exclusively to the glorification of God, and composed the songs and psalms, which celebrate in such magnificent language the praises of Jehovah. These songs seem the tune-inspirations of Heaven, and figure forth the sublime history of the ancient people. The most remarkable work upon the poetry of the Psalms, is that of Herder, entitled: "*De l'esprit de la poesie Hébraïque.*"

David, from the first, used music in religious solemnities. When he transported the holy ark from the house of Obed-Edom to Jerusalem, the king and the people danced before the ark to the accompaniment of songs and trumpets.

The book of Chronicles, chap. xv, v. 16 to 23, speaks of a musical organization created by David for the service of the Temple. He names the leaders of the music, and fixes the number of performers at four thousand Levites. (See Chronicles, chap. xxiii, v. 5.) "And four thousand praised the Lord with the instruments which I made," said David, "to praise therewith." The sacred record declares that women also joined in the musical services, and says briefly, in chap. xxv, 5th and 6th verses: "And God gave to Heman fourteen sons and three daughters, and that all these were under the hands of their father for song in the house of the Lord, with cymbals, psalteries and harps for the service in the house of God."

Many passages in the Bible show that women were employed at public feasts to sing and to dance. Solomon had them in his service, as is seen in Ecclesiastes, chap. xi, v. 3, and it is probable they were excluded from this service after the destruction of the first temple.

Under the reign of Solomon came the luxury of orchestra and chorus. The king constructed a temple of the most imposing architecture, and it was one of the marvels of antiquity. In it he established a divine service, presiding over it in regal and oriental splendor. The number of singers and musicians at the inauguration of the sanctuary was fabulous, and from that period, song and music were considered as a necessary accompaniment at the celebration of divine service.

After the reign of Solomon to the time of Zedekiah, the last king of Judah, the Bible makes no mention of a musical feast, and Isaiah, who lived at this period, gives a sad account of the moral condition of the Jewish people, and laments that song and music have fallen from their high estate to be only the accompaniment of debauchery and an auxiliary at Bacchanalian orgies. In chapter v, verses 11 and 12, he says: "Woe unto them that rise up early in the morning, that they may follow strong drink, and continue until night, till wine inflame them; and the harp and the viol, the tabret and pipe and wine are in their feasts."

Six hundred years before the Christian era, Nebuchadnezzar destroyed Jerusalem and the temple, driving the greater part of the Jewish people into exile in Babylon, ruining completely the empire of Israel, and one can easily see that very little of their time could be occupied with music. The 137th Psalm paints their condition in the most touching language. "By the rivers of Babylon, there we sat down; yea, we wept, when we remembered Zion." Still the love of music was by no means extinguished among the unfortunate captives. They occupied their time unceasingly with the art, and after their deliverance by Cyrus, they entered Palestine with two hundred male and female singers. (See Esdras xi. 65.)

The temple was rebuilt, and the ancient worship of King David shone anew in the city of Zion. It was, however, but

for a brief season, as its royalty did not long survive, and from 444 to 174 the Jews were under the dominion of the Persians, the Greeks, the Egyptians and Syrians. It was under the reign of the Syrians that they were subjected to the most terrible persecutions, even up to the moment of their deliverance by the Maccabees. When divine service and religious song were reëstablished with all their pomp and ancient ceremony, and the Hebrews enjoyed for some time their sovereignty and independence, but this happy season was not to be of long continuance, as they fell under the subjugation of the Roman power, and seventy years after the Christian era, Titus annihilated the holy city and the sanctuary of Zion.

From that time the people of Israel were scattered over the whole surface of the globe, and forming small communities, they fled for refuge to every land and clime. Firm in their religious faith, they preserved during long centuries of misfortune and oppression, and in their long exile, the laws and hereditary usages and customs of their fathers. It is in this way that their songs and melodies have been transmitted from generation to generation, and we feel an almost positive assurance that these traditional songs of praise have come down to the present era, showing clearly by their peculiar characteristics their great antiquity.—*Translated by Dr. W. F. Wetmore.*

MR. WILLIAM BUCKWELL of Philadelphia has given \$1,000 to sustain a scholarship in Worcester Academy "for the most courteous Christian gentleman and student." How the recipient of the scholarship is to be selected does not clearly appear. Many gentlemen are not Christians, and a large number of Christians are not gentlemen. Even if the matter were easily determined, it would not be a pleasant scholarship to receive. To be officially dubbed and pointed out as the truest Christian and the most perfect gentleman in the institution, would please no one who is either a Christian or a gentleman. Princeton, if we are not mistaken, sensibly refused a gift of this sort.

REMINISCENCES OF A SCHOOLMASTER.

III.

Hominem pagina nostra sapit.

Martial, Epig. 10, 4, 10.

HOW sad it makes me to remember what I have had to do with whipping in the school-room. And yet to have been other than I was in that respect, would have required me to have been very far in advance of all my surroundings. Whipping was universal in the schools of my youth and early manhood. At least there were no exceptions among those of my native city. All the teachers used the ruler or the ratan, and the flogging was oftentimes very severe. I saw indeed once—and I trust it was the only time it ever was witnessed—whipping in a Sunday-school. It was in the school I attended, where the Superintendent beat a boy most unmercifully for playing truant, and the punishment was administered in the presence of the whole school. That Superintendent still lives, and I would really like to know whether, after the lapse of fifty years, he thinks Sunday a fitting time, and the Sunday-school a fitting place for such an exhibition. I have also witnessed in the secular schools, which I attended, floggings that were appalling. And I now wonder, that the disgraceful scenes which I witnessed, had not convinced me that the discipline of the school-room in my day was wholly wrong. In one school, which I attended, there was no other punishment than flogging. A blow on the hand with a ratan was administered for every mistake in a recitation, and if the lesson were a failure, eight or ten blows additional across the shoulders were vigorously dispensed. The scenes I witnessed, and the harsh and angry words of rebuke I heard in these schools of my childhood did indeed convince me that the harsh and angry words were out of place, and the chastisements should be far less frequent, as well as less severe. But inasmuch as Solomon had said, "the rod and reproof give wisdom," and "foolishness is bound in the heart of a child; but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him," I regarded it as not only entirely in accordance with Script-

ural injunction to continue the rod in the school, but to have dispensed with it would have been flying in the face of all authority sacred and profane. Does not Horace say? "*memini quæ plagosum mihi parvo Orbilius dictasse,*" I remember the lessons which my schoolmaster Orbilius, who was fond of flogging, dictated to me when a boy. In those days books were few and teachers taught much by dictation, and Horace clearly hints that the tenacity of his memory was much assisted by the rod of his teacher. Juvenal also tells us, "*et nos ergo manum ferulæ subduximus,*" we too have drawn away our hand from the blows of the master's ferule. While Martial's words—

*Ferulæ tristes, sceptræ pædagogorum,
Cessent, et Idus dormant in Octobres :
Aestate pueri si valent, satis discunt,*

teach us that the ferule, the teacher's sceptre, may be allowed to rest in summer, for then boys learn enough, if only they manage to keep well; but when the cooler days of October come round, boys must ply their studies more vigorously, and to that end the teacher must take up his sceptre, the ferule. Melancthon's teacher also, though greatly beloved by him, seems to have surpassed mine, who used to give us one stroke on the hand with the ratan for each mistake. The reformer tells us "*quoties errabam, dabat plagas mihi,*" as often as I made a mistake he gave me *blows*. Blows, reader, just think of it, not one blow but several for each blunder. And so, to sum up in brief a defence of myself, for what in my heart I believe was and is indefensible,—St. Augustine, Luther, Milton, Samuel Johnson, Walter Scott, Coleridge, Southey, and Charles Lamb were soundly flogged at school, and in the most of these cases the wisdom of it was justified by the sufferers. True, Southey, in *The Doctor*, speaking of Daniel Dove's school-days, says: "This being the bent of his nature, the boy having a kind master as well as a happy home, never tasted of what old Lily calls (and well might call) the wearisome bitterness of the scholar's learning. He was never subject to the brutal discipline of the Udals, and Busbys, and Bowyers, and Parrs, and other less notorious tyrants who have trodden in their steps; nor was any of that inhuman injustice ever

exercised upon him to break his spirits, for which it is to be hoped Dean Colet has paid in purgatory ;—to be hoped, I say, because if there is no purgatory, the Dean may have gone farther and fared worse."

HOW TO TEACH.* Ninth Grade.

ARITHMETIC.

ADDING.—It would be well for the teacher, before commencing the lessons of this Grade, in Arithmetic, to read the directions for teaching "Adding" in the preceding Grade.

During the exercises of counting and adding with the Numeral Frame, do not allow the children to count and add by *rote*. See that due attention is given to the objects counted. When the pupils can add readily single columns, each composed of like numbers, as all 2's, all 3's, 4's, 5's, etc., teach them to add single columns composed of different small numbers, as 2's and 3's; 2's, 3's, and 4's; also

2	4	5	2's, 3's, 4's, and 5's. These combinations
3	3	4	should be illustrated on the Numeral Frame
2	2	3	at first, then taught with figures on the
3	4	2	blackboard; and subsequently copied by
2	3	5	the pupils on their slates, and added by them
3	2	4	silently. In adding, let the pupils be trained
2	4	3	from the first to name only the sums, thus:
3	3	2	3, 5, 8, 10, 13, 15, 18, 20, 23, 25;—4, 6, 9, 13,
2	2	5	15, 18, 22, 24, 27, 31;—49, 9, 11, 14, 18, 23, 25,
3	4	4	28, 32, 37.

— — — To make the pupils familiar with the sums produced by adding the separate numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, to each number below 20, arrange the figures on the blackboard thus:

* From "How to Teach. A Manual of Methods."

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15 etc.
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17

Continue this arrangement until the pupils can add, both on the blackboard and on slates, each number from 1 to 9 to each number below 20, both in the order given, and out of this order.

READING AND WRITING FIGURES.—Both the reading and writing of numbers in figures can be taught more thoroughly in steps, or groups. The figures should be presented first in their order, in connection with counting; then out of their order. In this Grade the figures should be taught *without numeration*. The following groups will indicate appropriate steps:

First Step.	Second Step.	Third Step.	Fourth Step.	Fifth Step.
10	100	100	200	300
11	200	101	201	301
12	300	102	202	302
13	400	103	203	303
14	500	104	204	304
15	600	105	205	305
16	700	106	206	306
17	800	107	207	307
18	900.	108	208	308
19		109	209	309
20		110	210	310
21		111	211	311
etc.,		etc.,	etc.,	etc.,
to		to	to	to
99.		199.	299.	399.

These steps may be continued in this manner through 999. As much time will be required to teach the *first* and

third steps as for any *four* other steps. Let the children be trained to *read* and *write* the numbers contained in each step, readily, before taking up the next one in order.

If properly conducted, these lessons will train the pupils to read and write numbers through 199 in one month, and any number expressed by three figures in two months.

ROMAN NUMBERS.—Besides teaching what numbers are represented by I, V, X, L, and their combinations to *sixty*, the pupils should be trained to tell the time of day as indicated on the face of a clock.

OBJECT LESSONS.

FORM.—When the pupils have learned to recognize a given shape by means of its representative form in the set of "Object Teaching Forms and Solids," they should be led to discover the same shape in several other objects.

During the first lessons on lines, the attention of the pupils was properly directed to their *shapes* only, as straight, crooked, curved, waved, spiral. When they are taught to recognize and name the *positions* of lines, as vertical, slanting or oblique, and horizontal, they should be trained to apply these names of positions to *objects* as well as to lines.

COLOR.—In lessons on color, the name should first be associated with the *color* which it represents, by showing that color and requiring the pupils to point it out on the chart, and among colored objects. To recite names and descriptions of colors, without also knowing the color when seen, is of no use. The teacher should use "Color-Cubes," "Colored-Cards," "Color-Charts," and other colored objects for illustrating these lessons, and require the pupils to show, by placing in groups colors that nearly resemble each other, with what degree of accuracy they *distinguish colors*; and at the same time they should be taught to know common shades and tints by their names.

HUMAN BODY.—In giving lessons on the *human body*, let the pupils point out and give the names and uses of parts, as parts and uses of the arm, hand, leg, foot, etc.

OBJECTS.—Let the pupils point out parts of objects, and

the teacher give their names and uses ; then let the children give their names and uses of the parts as the teacher points to them.

DRAWING AND WRITING.

ON SLATES.—In this Grade, the instruction should be continued in a manner similar to that for the Tenth Grade, which we see. The teacher should give full illustrations on the blackboard, relative to each point and step of the lessons.

MANAGEMENT.

DOING.—*Children learn much faster by doing than by merely repeating what they have been told.* Therefore, whenever possible, arrange the exercises of each subject so that the pupils may be called upon *to do* something which relates to that subject, *with their hands* ; also so as to require them *to tell* what they *see* and *do*.

REGULAR OCCUPATION FOR ALL THE PUPILS.—A teacher, who furnishes that regular and constant occupation which commands the attention of all the pupils during the several exercises of the day, thereby gives the best assurance of ability to manage a school successfully. Indeed, the secret of maintaining good discipline chiefly lies in this. Hence the *manner of teaching* becomes an important element of good management as well as of good instruction, for it is this which chiefly determines the order of the class. Furthermore, habits of learning are acquired from the prevailing methods of teaching.

To learn how to manage a class or school, so that all the pupils may have constant occupation, and may give an interested attention to all exercises, should be the aim of every teacher. Proper changes in the manner of presenting the different lessons upon the same subject, and even changes in the manner of conducting the exercise of a single lesson will be useful to the teacher toward the attainment of this aim.

In a class composed of young children, frequent alternations from answers by individual pupils to responses by the entire class will aid in maintaining the attention of all

the pupils. Great care, however, will be necessary, on the part of the teacher, to prevent the pupils, while speaking in concert, from using sing-song tones. This may be prevented by requiring them always to use the falling inflection in answers by the entire class, and by never allowing them to repeat the answer, or statement, without a request from the teacher, *made after each response* by the class.

PROPER DISCIPLINE.

MR. BEECHER, in the course of one of his late sermons, said: Many persons object to a physical punishment for children, but they might as well revile God for making the child suffer pain when it stumbles on a stone. Punishment is needed sometimes, and where it is needed use it, and where it is not needed do not use it. It is purely a matter of practical skill and wisdom. Use just as much as is necessary to accomplish your end—so much and no more. I have no doubt that a man, say with great experience in the rearing of children, might stop and reason with the child and so dispense with the rod, but I should like to know what a woman who has to work for a living, who has fourteen children, I should like to know what she is going to do about it. You that have amplitude of means can stop and blow the bubbles of society, but for others—don't be afraid to do what God does; all creation is whipped by him, and you need not be afraid to use the switch. Men say that it awakens more bad passions than it cures. Well, that is because you don't whip hard enough. All slight pinches, all slapping of the ears, are abominations. You must aim to establish a counter-irritation and have it so. Those, then, must be the points—inside and outside at the same time, thoroughness in whipping or nothing, that is the rule. Our government in the family destroys self-government.

People marvel why children turn out badly for whom so much has been done. Suppose your child has never been allowed to walk; suppose the servant was obliged to carry

him in her arms or wheel him in a carriage all the time, and he never be allowed to set his foot upon the ground till he was twenty-one, and then people marvel that he cannot walk when so much has been done to spare his legs up to this time! So some people are so anxious for the salvation of the souls of their children that they damn them; they won't let the child go out in the street because there are bad boys there. You think for them; you lay down your life for the boy, and you never teach him a just discrimination between right and wrong; you never let him make blunders, which is the best thing in the world for a child to do. You insist upon it that the child shall be stuffed with knowledge; you bother him in every way, and then, at last, when he gets out into life he had learned nothing. The family is a school in which the children are to practice continuously. You can teach the child to use his own judgment, but if you have nothing but your own imperious will, and say nobody can have any rights in your family, the law is yourself all the time—"the children must do as I say or I will cut their heads off." Your will is so strong that, like a sparrow beating up against a tornado, the child's will is swept down before it, and consequently when he gets away from home, comes down to New York perhaps, his first thought is, his first expression is, "Thank God, now I will see life." And the worst of this is, to him this life is the common sewer; he is but the natural result of bad government. And you say, "Good gracious, if there ever was a boy that had good government my boy had!" but he had not, for you never allowed him to exercise the first principles of self conservation.

THE suggestion made some time ago in these pages that newspapers should be substituted for reading books in the school room has attracted favorable notice. Elsewhere is given the experience of two teachers who have pursued the plan in their schools long enough to speak intelligently as to its working. They have both found it successful; as it can hardly fail of being under the direction of a good teacher.

IMAGINATION IN CHILDREN.

THE power which the mind has of re-presenting objects previously known, for the mind's recognition, is called the representative faculty. But where the mind, in addition to this, so far modifies the objects of past experience as to transform them into new creations by re-combining or constructing anew the materials which the past furnishes, it becomes the Imagination.

Porter, in speaking of the interest and importance which attaches to the imagination says: "The soul from childhood to old age delights in pictures of its own creating. Ideal objects furnish associations more pleasing, and emotions more satisfying than any which the experience of reality can awaken. But for the power of imagination, there could be neither invention nor discovery. Even in mathematical science, both would be impossible; for it is only as the mind imagines new constructions in space and new combinations in number, or their symbols, that it can develop new theorems, or solve new problems. Creations of art would be excluded; for the constructive brain of the painter or sculptor must go before or with the hand that guides the pencil, and directs the chisel. The inventor in mechanics, the composer in poetry, or music, the thinker in morals, philosophy or letters, the deviser of beneficent schemes for human well-being, are each and all dependent on the resources of the imagination for every possible conjunction of cause and effect, of tendency and result, out of which to find what it seeks, or to effect what it desires."

The child almost lives in the world of the imagination, seeking there for all his pleasure, when the sensible world fails to interest him, and often withdrawing to enjoy himself with amusements of his own devising. As it is the work of education to develop and perfect the germs of power already existing in the mind, here is one division of its field of labor, which is often neglected.

An observer of child-nature has not failed to note the power which the child possesses of making whatever he may happen to have answer all his purposes of amusement.

The little one, just beginning to express his thoughts in language, and to manifest in actions the activity of his little mind, will use the arm-chair for his carriage, harnessing the foot-stools for ponies, and really enjoy his imaginary ride in this "make believe" coach-and-four. The little country maid of three or four summers, will set a table with all the necessary requirements for a comfortable meal, from her abundant store of acorns and green leaves, and then call her little playmates visitors, who have come to drink tea with her.

As the sculptor, by means of the marble and chisel, endeavors to convey to the world his conception of beauty, so does the child ever seek to give objectivity to his thoughts, eagerly seizing whatever is at hand for this purpose; and he is only baffled in the effort because his mind is not sufficiently developed to enable him to discover and use means appropriate to his ends.

A few lessons have been given in the primary department of the Cortland Normal School, to call forth the imagination, and to see what its activity among the children is. The result of these, and the thoughts suggested by them, can best be given by reference to the lessons themselves.

In the first lesson a story was related to a class of children, aged from nine to eleven, of an imaginary party given by the flowers in a certain garden. The teacher composed the story chiefly while telling it to the class, who were required to bring the next day a story written by themselves on a similar subject. These stories, when handed to the teacher, showed considerable thought and some originality, and yet a tendency to follow the plan and ideas of the story given to them, as a model. This would suggest that care be taken not to give the child too much help, as he will be apt to reproduce the thoughts of another, and not exercise in the least, his own imagination.

The second lesson was the giving of a number of blocks and laths of different sizes and shapes, to a class of little ones, aged from six to eight years, who were told to make of them anything which they pleased. The children readily began to handle the blocks, apparently pleased with the novelty; but when questioned as to what they intended to

build, were unable to tell. It was obvious that no definite idea of what he would make had formed in the mind of the child. Each child was then directed to think of something he would like to build, and then tell what it was, before commencing work. At a moment's thought, the names of different objects were given, as barn, bridge, light-house, etc. Here was seen the necessity of having some definite object in view when any purpose of *use* was to be effected through the imagination. It was observed also that the children were quite apt to change their minds concerning the object of their work, and leave what was commenced unfinished. This must be guarded against by the instructor, as otherwise much time will be wasted, and the children acquire a habit of being fickle-minded, drifting from one thing to another without accomplishing anything. The boys in this class showed greater skill in construction than the girls. It remains to be seen whether this is generally so or not.

Again, three lessons were given to as many classes, to test the inventive power of the imagination. A quantity of leaves of a variety of shapes, colors and sizes, were given to the children, who were requested to make of them any patterns or forms they wished. The result was that the children manifested considerable invention in forming wreaths, crosses, bed-quilt patterns, crowns, etc. As in a former lesson, the necessity was seen of leading the children to have definite ideas of what they intend to do, and then holding them to that idea, until it is embodied in the object formed. No work is better adapted to develop the powers of invention than inventive drawing. In this the child may be left almost entirely to his own originality of design, and the imagination is constantly exercised. It is surprising to see the rapidity with which a child will improve in this work, and the beauty and symmetry of the forms devised. Comparatively few of those who have studied drawing, have been able to apply their knowledge in architecture, engraving, modeling, painting and other arts, where such knowledge is required. The reason of this, doubtless, is that the practice in drawing has taught to imitate rather than to invent, and therefore is of little practical use.

The steps taken by the State of Massachusetts, two or three years ago, regarding the instruction of the children in her public schools, in the art of drawing, has produced the most satisfactory results. *The New York Tribune* gave an account of the success which had attended those efforts, from which we quote: "The State and City Exhibition of Drawings will be one of the most interesting of the kind that Boston has ever had. The interest which attaches, arises not merely from the large number of schools represented, and the general excellence of the works exhibited, but from the fact that it is the first fruits of a new system of art instruction, which Massachusetts has adopted for her day and evening public schools. It is the drawing from original designs that is the unique part of the course, and the most interesting part of the Exhibition. It is this side of the new movement that secures the hearty co-operation of Massachusetts manufacturers, especially the mill-owners. They realize that every step in this direction is so much money in their pockets, so much in favor of home products. The great difficulty, they say, in competing with foreign fabrics, is not in the quality of the goods, but in securing designs of equal excellence. The scholar is left entirely alone in this matter of composition, but is furnished with a few simple materials to weave together in such designs as he chooses. The materials may be, perhaps, a few simple outlines, into which an ivy leaf, or something which the pupil has learned to draw, is to be introduced. All classes are furnished with the same material, but the diversity of design is considerable. The early age at which this aptitude can be developed, would scarcely be believed if the Boston Exhibition did not furnish the evidence. There are designs by children, ranging from eleven to sixteen years, which would command admiration anywhere, and, in the proper place, a good price. The value of this movement to the industrial interests of Massachusetts is at once apparent, and Boston's experiment ought not to want interest for education all over the country."

Kindergarten instruction has, to a certain extent, provided for the culture of the imagination. Children are taught modelling, using wax as the material for work, and at first

imitating pictures or engravings. Afterwards they are led to invent forms—vases, pitchers and other objects. Many a heaven-destined sculptor finds himself out at this work. Cutting and folding paper into various shapes, weaving many colored worsteds or papers into book-marks and mats, are other Kindergarten means of leading the activity of the imagination into fields of usefulness.

All our efforts, as teachers, have in view the education of the child; and in what does this education consist? Not in instruction alone, although this forms a part of it; not in leading some of the faculties of the mind into activity, and neglecting the rest, but in giving exercise and discipline to every power of the soul—in teaching the pupil to think and act for himself, and more especially to guide and accustom young minds to “the true, the noble and the beautiful,” and to employ for good those impulses which would otherwise be turned to evil. How may this end be furthered through the imagination? The activity of the child is such that it is never still when left free to act out its own impulses; and, naturally, many of the imaginations of the child lead to evil practices. If the child be early trained to a love for the pure and beautiful it will find scope for its activity in this direction, and be drawn away from the evil tendencies.

A pure and elevated imagination is in many ways allied to a noble, moral nature; for the imagination “creates ideals of what we might be and do, which are higher than anything which we really are, or which we perform.” Inculcate in the child-mind a love for the good and true, an appreciation of the beautiful in whatever form it may be found; and the results of such an education upon the moral and social life, would soon be seen and felt in the elevation of the morals and motives of the people. The value of such culture to the industrial interests of the country, has already been intimated in speaking of inventive drawing. But not only in designs for calico printing are the benefits to be reaped. The imagination holds within its sphere poetry, music, painting, sculpture, architecture, and landscape gardening. In fact, there is hardly any vocation in life but would be considerably benefited by an imagination trained for useful purposes.—*Sara A. Saunders.*

THE BUILDING OF A BRAIN.

DR. E. H. CLARKE, author of "Sex in Education," delivered an address before the National Educational Association on "The Building of a Brain," which will be read with much interest. It will be remembered that Dr. Clarke's book provoked very general discussion, and attracted so much attention that several answers to it were published in book form. It has also been highly commended, especially by male physicians. Dr. Clarke opened his address by referring to the races which have inhabited this continent and have passed away. Whether the Anglo-Saxon race will die out as they have done, or whether it will endure, depends upon us. It will be perpetuated if we build up a body and brain capable of meeting the demands of our civilization. But simply to keep from deteriorating is not enough; we must advance. Two duties then are imposed upon us, one to secure the perpetuation of our race, and the other to provide for the survival of the fittest. It has been argued that this cannot be done, that a high development of brain dwarfs the other powers. It can however be accomplished, not by an exclusive education of one part of our organization, but by a harmonious development of every part.

Brains rule the world and the individual. The problem of the age which educators are to solve, with all the light that experience, aided by physiology and reflection, can give, is, how to build the best brains out of the materials given to work with. The demand of humanity is, Give me the best possible brain for men and women both. Fortunately, the necessity of answering this demand admits of no dispute. The best possible brain is as much a necessity for one sex as for the other. Indeed, such is the divine alliance between the sexes that it is impossible to produce the best possible brain for one sex unless you produce the best possible brain for the other also.

Unless men and women both have brains, the nation will go down. As much brain is needed to govern a household as to command a ship; as much to guide a family aright as

to guide a Congress aright; as much to do the least and the greatest of woman's work as to do the least and greatest of man's work. Moreover, in both sexes, the brain is the conservator of strength and the prolonger of life. It is not only the organ of intellection, volition, and spiritual power, but the force evolved from it, more than the force evolved from any other organ, enables men and women to bear the burdens and perform the duties of life; and with its aid, better than with any surgery, can they overcome the "ills that flesh is heir to."

But the organs whose normal growth and evolution lead up to the brain, are not the same in men and women. Consequently their brains, though alike in microscopic structure, have infused into them different, though equally excellent, qualities. If it were not so, sex would be a myth: men and women would be identical; and it would be folly to discuss the relation of sex to education.

Poor brains, automatic ganglia, will grow like weeds, without cultivation, on any soil. The best brains, the only sort the world needs, are built by education or educated evolution, in accordance with working plans that Nature furnishes. Let us endeavor, then, to get some notion, however crude, of the way in which the divine Architect, whom we know as Nature's God, builds a human brain. By so doing we shall clear the way to a correct understanding of the relation of sex to education.

In one sense the process of brain-building is alike for the two sexes; in another sense it is different. It is the same for both, inasmuch as the process, which evolves the best possible brain, by means of appropriate brain exercise, including cerebration, out of the underlying organization, is alike in the two sexes. It is different for the two, in so far as there are any organs or sets of organs in the structure of one sex, that are not in the structure of the other. Provided the organization of both sexes is normal, and all their functions normally performed, the same sort of brain work will develop the brain of each. But if the methods of education render abnormal any part of the body or interfere with any function, that will not only be a damage to the part disturbed, and friction in its function, but the brain will suf-

fer just in proportion to the importance of the organs disturbed and the amount of the disturbance.

Before going farther, let us have a distinct notion of the relation which, in this discussion, brain is supposed to bear to mind. Brain is here used as the correlative of mind, not from a materialistic point of view, as if mind, including volition, were identical with brain, but because we know and only can know the mind through the brain. The quantity and quality of the latter determine for us the quantity and quality of the former. The development of the soul and mind—of the Ego—resolves itself into the development of the brain. The artist who builds a fountain looks carefully after the strength and structure, the quality and form, of what he builds, and troubles himself very little about the water, which is to animate his work. He knows that jet and drop and spray will pour out, just as the fountain permits the flow. So with the brain. In proportion to the character of its structure will be the manifestation of mind and spirit through it. Build the brain aright, and the Divine Spirit will inhabit and use it. Build it wrongly, and the devil will employ it. The development of the mind, then, means practically the development of the brain; and the building of the brain is part of education. A wise and appropriate system of education, in its efforts to build a brain either for the male or the female organization, will endeavor to aid and imitate the process by which nature performs the same task. Herein physiology can render infinite service to education, a service that the latter cannot afford to refuse.

An appropriate physiological illustration of Nature's process of building a brain, which we are trying to expose, may be found in the relation of the left brain to the right arm and the right side of the body. A large majority of the world are right-handed and right-sided. The right hand and right arm are stronger and more obedient to the will than the left; so are the right leg and right foot. The cause of this right-sidedness is to be found in the fact that the left brain is the largest. Most of the nerves leaving the brain decussate, and cross to opposite sides of the body. The right brain animates and controls the left arm and hand;

the left brain animates and controls the right arm and hand. The left brain and right hand, the right brain and left hand, develop together. One aids the development of the other. The growth and action of the hand is as necessary to the development of the brain as the guidance and control of the brain is to the development of the hand.

It is now important to go one step farther. We have hitherto dwelt upon the development of the brain as a resultant of its connection with the organs of the body and supervision over their functions; its alliance with the workmen and supervision of their duties. No allusion has been made to the development produced by specific brain-work, or cerebation as a factor in brain-building. This factor is the most important of the whole. On account of its importance and efficiency, it is essential that its action should be comprehended, and its power physiologically guided. Cerebation, including provisionally in that term intellection, emotion and volition, is the brain at work. It is brain activity, brain exercises, brain labor. The technical work of the school and college or study is cerebation. But study is not the whole of cerebation, any more than it is the whole of education. Appropriate exercise of an organ aids its development and increases its power. Appropriate locomotion strengthens the legs; so does digestion the stomach, and vision the eye. The normal performance of a function strengthens and develops the organ that performs it. The brain is not only no exception to this law, but is an admirable illustration of it. Brain exercise, that is cerebation, strengthens and develops the brain. If quality as well as quantity is included in development, no limit can be assigned to the extent of the latter, and consequently no limit to the manifestations of intellectual and spiritual power that may pour through the brain. It may be that we have no conception of what the human brain will yet attain to.

The only difference between the sexes is sex; but this difference is radical and fundamental, and expresses itself in radical and fundamental differences of organization, that extend from the lowest to the highest forms of life. Progress is impossible without accepting and respecting differences of sex. That it is physiologically possible to diminish it, by

an education arranged for that end, no physiologist can doubt; nor can it be doubted that identical methods of educating the sexes, such as prevail in many of our schools, tend that way. One result of a school system, animated by such methods, is to make a very poor kind of men out of women and a very poor kind of women out of men. Fortunate for the republic if no illustrations of the truth of this remark could be found within its borders. The best quality, noblest power, and supreme beauty of the two sexes grow out of their dissimilarity, not out of their identity. Differentiation is nature's method of ascent. We should cultivate the difference of the sexes, not try to hide or abolish it. When a gardener seeks to produce the best possible apple or peach, he selects one whose beauty or flavor is desirable, and cultivates the selected difference. Nature has selected difference of sex by which to give humanity its choicest beauty and quality. The perfection of one sex is unattainable by the other. Each loves and reverences in the other what it cannot attain itself, and despises any imitation. Let education respect and cultivate nature's selected difference.

The first step in the practical application of the principles is to heed the voice that fell on Peter's ear, and echos still in ours, bidding us call nothing common or unclean that bears a divine stamp. The whole organization and all its functions must be lifted above the low plane of animal instinct and confided to the charge of reason. Sex and its functions must be recognized as factors in education, as aids in brain-building. Something has been done in this direction so far as women are concerned by the discussions of the past year in Europe and this country upon the periodicity of the female constitution. The secrecy and mystery that rested like an incubus or evil spell upon it have been wrenched from our American civilization and education and will never be put on again.

The next step is to acquire a complete notion of the value of periodicity as an element in female education. This must be done by ascertaining the evil that follows a disregard of it and the good that follows its normal action. When this has been accomplished, it will be easy to assign to periodic-

ity its proper position among the other factors, such as nutrition, cerebration, and the like, that belong to education and contribute to the building of a brain. It is obvious that the factor of periodicity must be studied with regard to woman alone, for there is nothing like it in the male constitution. And it is equally obvious that in order to carry on this investigation successfully the community must be provided with a class of intelligent and well-educated female physicians.

The evils that man incurs from a disregard of his peculiar organization are not the same as those that beset the path of woman; but they are not less terrible than hers. In this regard his education must be equally circumspect, but very different. When we consider the diseases breeding rottenness in the flesh and bones, degenerations of the brain, imbecility, impotence, and premature death, with which nature punishes his errors of passion and sensuality, we cannot justly say that, even so far as sex is concerned, woman is unfairly weighted for the race of life in comparison with him. An appropriate education (of boys and girls) will recognize the special differences, guard against the special dangers, and obtain the special benefits that spring from sex.

THE annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, which was this year held at Hartford, Conn., adjourned August 18th. The most important business was the adoption of a new constitution. Members actually engaged in science are classed as "Fellows," and from these alone are officers to be chosen. Committees too have increased power to exclude undesirable communications. This is an improvement, since heretofore the time of the meetings has been largely taken up by the papers of members whose attainments gave them little right to be heard. The chemists have joined the association, and have resolved to make their science strongly represented. The meeting may be called a success, but still it scarcely equalled the session of last year.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE attendance at the first morning session of the National Educational Association at Detroit, August 4th, was rather scanty. Not more than 500 persons were present. The afternoon and evening trains however brought in many delegates, and the later sessions were largely attended. Prof. S. H. White, of Peoria, Ill., made an excellent presiding officer. The opening exercises were very brief. Mr. Duane Doty, Superintendent of the Detroit schools, made a short address of welcome, and, after an equally brief response, the Association proceeded to business.

First upon the programme was the report of the Committee on Upper Schools, of which President George P. Hays of Washington and Jefferson College was chairman. The subject was brought up by Dr. McCosh of Princeton, at Elmira last year, and caused much discussion. The report spoke of boarding schools and preparatory departments in colleges as temporary and inadequate expedients, and called attention to public high schools and academies as the proper institutions to prepare students for college. A full discussion of the defects of these schools as feeders to the colleges was entered into, and remedies for these defects were proposed. The report argued that the State should not undertake the whole work in the department of intermediate education, thus leaving the people to consider the matter as of slight interest to them. A wiser course would be to tender to communities a sum of money equal to that raised by themselves. In this way interest would be developed and the gifts of the people called forth. In the discussion which followed the report the conclusions reached by the chairman were generally approved. The debate however diverged somewhat from the point under discussion, and took up the question of private schools as against high schools, and high school studies proper, against high school studies as a preparation for college. Mr. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, said that modern literature and the developments of modern science had so far increased the field of study in the

high schools as to exclude much that is taught in the college course. If high schools were used as institutions to prepare students for college, it would be necessary to have two separate courses of study; one the skeleton course for the college student, and the other the living skeleton frame, clothed with modern science. A committee was appointed to consider "the question of courses of study in high schools, and to make a report at the next annual meeting."

According to previous arrangement the afternoons were devoted to sessions of the four departments of Higher Education, Normal Schools, Superintendence, and Elementary Schools.

The Department of Higher Education was presided over by President Reed, of the Missouri University. An interesting paper on "Elective Studies in Universities and Colleges" was read by Prof. Peabody, of Harvard, at the session on the first day. He quoted the experience of Harvard in the matter, which, he said, had been such as to fully justify the adoption of the elective plan. He argued that it was better to know a few things thoroughly than many things partially, and said that students below the average perhaps in general studies were ashamed to make a failure in a study which they themselves had selected. At Harvard, cases of sudden conversion have not been rare—cases in which a minimum amount of required work has been done, and a minimum rank attained, while in the elective branches the same student has done excellently well, and in some instances stood at the head of his class. Thus far the improvement has been progressive, each graduating class having shown in its final examination a higher average percentage than the preceding, thus indicating a standard advancing in proportion as the old traditions of the uniform system have been receded from. No action was taken on the paper, but a discussion followed, the general drift of which was in favor of elective studies.

In the Department of Normal Schools Prof. Ogden, of the Ohio State Central Normal School, presented a paper upon the subject, "What Constitutes a Consistent Course of Study for State Normal Schools?" The Department of Superintendence held no session the first day. The Depart-

ment of Elementary Schools discussed "Problems in the Management of Graded Schools." The evening session was addressed by Prof. William R. Abbott, of Bellevue, Va., the subject of whose remarks was "The Profession of the Teacher."

At the morning session of the second day President White, of Cornell University, read a paper on "A National University." He took ground diametrically opposed to President Eliot, of Harvard, who read a paper on the same subject before the Association last year. President White said that our colleges are mostly pompous little sectarian schools, and that we have nothing worthy the name of a university: that in libraries, apparatus, and necessary appliances for instruction we are woefully lacking, and that because of this, men having natural abilities as teachers are unable to accomplish the best results. He would have each State build up one strong institution for higher instruction, rather than waste money and effort upon twenty schools under the control of sectarian boards. The general government should found an institution fully equipped and free from sectarian domination. By this means alone could we found and support a national university. The educational growth of over two hundred years, under the prevailing system, has failed to give it to us. Superintendents Hancock, of Cincinnati, and Harris, of St. Louis, spoke on the same subject.

In the afternoon, in the Department of Higher Education, Prof. C. S. Venable, of the University of Virginia, read an interesting paper on the plan of that institution. Hon. John P. Hoyt, of Madison, Wis., read a reply to President Eliot's report of last year against the establishment of a national university. In the Department of Normal Schools Prof. J. C. Greenough, President of the Normal School, Providence, R. I., read a paper on Training Schools in connection with Normal Schools; and Larkin Dutton, Head Master of the Boston City Normal School, presented another discussing the question, "What are the Essentials of a Profession, and what is Necessary to Entitle our Normal Schools to be called Professional?" In the Department of Superintendence Hon. T. W. Harvey, State School Superintendent of Ohio,

reported as chairman of a committee, on a "Uniform Plan and Form for Publishing the Principal Statistical Tables on Education." The report, after several amendments, was adopted, with a recommendation for its use by the National Bureau of Education at Washington. Miss H. A. Keeler spoke in the Department of Elementary Schools on "Language Lessons in Primary Schools." Dr. Armstrong, of the Fredonia N. Y. State Normal School, read a paper on "Science in Elementary Schools." In the evening Hon. George W. Hodgkins, Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction in Ontario, delivered an address on "Public Education in Canada." The Association adjourned early, and most of the members attended receptions at the residences of Gov. Bagley and Senator Chandler.

The first hour of the session of the third day was devoted to discussing President White's paper on a national university, read the day before. It was warmly attacked by Mr. Hammond, of Massachusetts, and defended as earnestly by President Wallace, of Illinois. Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio, and President Hays, of Pennsylvania, also took part in the debate, which was closed by President White. Some remarks were made by Gen. John Eaton, U. S. Commissioner of Education. The question of sex in education was then taken up. Dr. E. H. Clarke, of Boston, read a paper on "The Building of a Brain," an abstract of which is given elsewhere. Prof. James Orton, of Vassar, spoke on "Four Years at Vassar College," and Prof. Hosmer, of the University of Missouri, on "Co-education of the Sexes in Universities." Prof. Orton was heartily in favor of advanced education for women, but opposed co-education. Prof. Hosmer's paper proved that his knowledge of the management of mixed schools had been exceedingly unfortunate, and his rank expressions of the depraved tendencies of youth as furnishing insuperable objections to the co-education of the sexes, will scarcely receive favor among our best educators throughout the country. There may be objections to the system, but, to say the least, they did not find popular expression in his paper.

In the Department of Higher Education, a paper was read by Prof. James D. Butler, of Madison, Wis., on "Clas-

sical Studies in Higher Institutions of Education." Prof. Patterson, of the University of Kentucky, read a paper on "University Endowments," attacking sectarian schools. This question was warmly debated in the section of Superintendence. Superintendent Rickoff, of Cleveland, made a report on blanks for city statistics, and the department adjourned to meet in Washington as an independent body. In the Department of Normal Schools, Prof. Hailmann read a paper by Mr. Soldan, of St. Louis, on "Method and Manner." In the Department of Elementary Schools Miss A. C. Martin, of Boston, read a paper entitled, "What shall we Attempt in our Elementary Schools?" and Miss Peabody, of Massachusetts, gave a description of the working of the "kindergarten" schools.

In the evening speeches were made by several gentlemen. Resolutions were adopted tendering thanks for hospitalities. The following are the only two which are expressive of opinion:

Resolved, That this Association reaffirms the declaration of opinion voted at its last annual meeting, that the proceeds of the sales of the public lands should be set apart by Congress, under such conditions as it may deem wise, as a perpetual fund for the support of public education in the States and Territories.

Resolved, That this Association is earnestly in favor of the establishment of a true National University.

A committee was appointed to further the project of a national university. After fixing upon Richmond, Va., as the place for the next meeting, the Convention adjourned. At the election of officers of the Association for the ensuing year, William T. Harris was chosen president, William R. Abbott secretary, and A. P. Marble treasurer.

The Convention this year may be regarded as a success. Over six hundred delegates from thirty-one States were present. The subjects of discussion were of practical interest to teachers, and they were generally ably treated. From the first the Association evinced a desire to devote itself to business, and not to give up its time to those who are found in every such body—people who have a remarkable "flow of language" and very few ideas.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MR. EDITOR:—I noticed in the AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY for June, a short article relative to substituting newspapers for the regular school reading-book. I am a school-teacher, one who enjoys teaching, and having had some experience in using newspapers, I feel like writing you a few lines in their favor.

One term, instead of selecting new readers, we took a weekly paper, choosing "The Watchword and Patriot," a paper published at Albany, N. Y. I placed all the pupils of the third, fourth and fifth classes together, and I never knew greater interest and more improvement than in my reading class of that term.

The introduction of newspapers being an experiment with me, of course my plan of teaching from them was also experimental; but we finally fixed on the system which I will describe, hoping others may derive as much benefit from it as we did.

The papers were brought into school on Tuesday morning, and I then selected the articles I wished read in the class, allowing the pupils to read the others out of school hours if they wished. I usually gave the story on the second page on Tuesday, short sketches on Wednesday, advertisements, etc., on Thursday, and on Friday the poetry. On Monday we practiced vocalization, etc., by the aid of our old books. I would here say the third class read twice each day, while the others read but once. Places mentioned were always looked up, and the meaning of difficult words was explained. Discussions often arose which were even more profitable than reading. Thus, by varying the exercises of the class, the interest continued, and was even stronger, than when new Readers were introduced, for every day brought something new, interesting and valuable.

During my years of teaching I have never had better reading classes than since I introduced newspapers into my school.

RACHEL A. SMITH.

August, 1874.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

THE number of those who can sing at sight is very small, compared with those who commence the study of vocal music and give it up. After much trouble and expense, pupils find themselves unable to sing, and give over the attempt to learn, under the impression that music is only for a favored few, endowed with exceptionable powers. The trouble is not, however, that music is so difficult in itself, as that we do not study it in the right way. We attack all the difficulties of intonation, measure, etc., at once, and are consequently able to make but little progress. A work has just come under our notice which is founded upon more scientific methods than those generally prevailing. It is entitled "The Art of Reading Music." The authoress, *Mrs. Laura B. Humphreys*, had for many years taken music lessons, from excellent masters, but found after all her expenditure of time and effort that she was unable to sing the simplest melody at sight. She concluded that those who could accomplish this must have been endowed with peculiar gifts, a notion of which she was not disabused until she became acquainted with the "Galin Method," by the aid of which she finally learned the art of reading music. On this system her own work is founded, following it in the progressive character of its exercises and in its devices to aid in the study of music. She does not, however, adopt its system of notation, since that would involve the necessity of an entire revolution in the mode of writing and publishing music.

The principal advantage of her work is that it isolates difficulties. For example, intonation and measure, encumbered with as few difficulties as possible, are studied separately, until the pupil has mastered them sufficiently to admit of their combination in exercises. The study of measure also gradually ascends from the simplest to the most complicated relations. The work will, we are convinced, prove a help to that large number of persons who, although they do not possess exceptional musical powers, would like to learn to sing could they do so by putting forth

a reasonable amount of effort. It will, too, be an efficient help to the teachers of music in our public and private schools.

It is said that the State of Missouri intends to have its own system of School-books, to be prepared by the Superintendent of Education. Judging from the number of weak books produced by some who confine themselves to a special branch, it is easy to foretell that a *series* produced by a single author would be a failure, and that a State supplied in this manner, will have the worst series before the public.

Nearly as bad is the proposition that all parts of a State shall use the same series, thus allowing a Board or a Ring, say at Albany, to determine what books are best for the cities of New York, Rochester, or Buffalo, under the presumption that the local Superintendents and Boards are not sufficiently intelligent to make their own selections; and in this connection it is worth mentioning that some educators fear that attempts will be made to divert the Educational Department at Washington into this channel.

These ideas have been suggested by another of those (de-)graded word-books devoted to Etymology, which continue to hash and rehash the imperfect materials of bygone times—"Word Analysis," by *William Swinton, A.M.* We are told (p. 7) that prefixes and suffixes are joined to *primitive* words, yet the author joins *ness* to *helpless*, which is not a primitive. Educate (p. 52) "is an English primitive because (?) the word is in its simplest English form;" were this true, the word would not be an English primitive, but the rejection of affixed elements results in *duc-at*, *duc-t*, and *duke*.

Derivatives from English, Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek, are separated, yet his twelve "English Prefixes" (p. 12) include *con*, *re*, and *super*; and among his twenty-four "English" headings are pure, just, crude, equal, honor, express, and other Latin forms.

On p. 26 the pupil is asked to "Analyze *beauteous*. Why is *y* changed to *e*?" Why indeed!—a query which the book does not answer, but teachers may as well know that *y* of beauty is derived from the *e* in old English beau-te, whence beau-te-ous and beau-ty.

There is no such suffix as *ify*, meaning *to make* (p. 27); and *glory*, from a root meaning *to shine*, is not a synonym of *fame*, from a root meaning *to speak*. Certain diphthongs "are sounded like *e*;" but an *e* sound cannot be a diphthong. We are shown (p. 29) how the Latin word *scholar* (*scholaris*) can be derived from the modern English word *school* when "one of the *o*'s is dropped." But *school* has neither one *o*, like its predecessor old English *scole*, nor two *o*'s, as in *zo-o-phyte*, but it has acquired the true vowel of *ooze*. To be consistent, the author should have made *creed* (p. 66) the root of *credible*, and put it in the English division. By taking the false root *judge* (p. 33) he is prevented from admitting *adjudicate* along with *adjudge*, for this would be referring an ancient word to one of later formation. The Greek conveys the idea that *ue* of *demagogue*, *eous* of *homogeneous*, and *y* of *astronomy*, were derived from *os*, when in fact, *astronomy* is not strictly from *nomos* (a law or science), because *astronomos* is an *astronomer*, while *astronomia* gives *astronomy* and its *y* for *i* formative of Haldeman's Affixes.

While condemning Prof. Swinton for his failure as an etymologist, we consider his "Rambles among Words" as superior to Trench's books on this subject.

W. SHARSWOOD.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK.—The State Teachers' Association assembled at Binghamton, July 28th, and remained in session three days. The attendance was large, and much interest was manifested in the proceedings. Addresses of welcome were delivered by the Mayor of the city and by the Rev. Edward Taylor. President Andrew McMillan, in the usual annual address, spoke of the growth of the common school system and of the indispensability of universal education in a republic. Speeches were also made by Dr. S. T. Lambert on "Duality of Mind as Correlated to Duality of Brain;" by Prof. Wilder, of Cornell University, on "Spiders;" by Prof. Comfort, of Syracuse University,

on "The Fine Arts in Education," by Prof. Watkins on "Discipline in our Schools and Colleges," and by others. The attendance manifested a growing interest in the Association. The arrangements for the convenience of members were generally good. It was, however, impossible to hear distinctly in the farther part of the room of assembly. Henry R. Sanford, of Middletown, was elected President of the Association for the ensuing year.

VIRGINIA.—The Educational Association convened at Norfolk, July 14th. Only an outline of the proceedings has been received, so that it is impossible to give a very intelligent or full report of them. The attendance was larger than ever before. Thirty-two new members were enrolled, and more than twenty ladies accepted the invitation of last year to join the Association. Addresses were delivered by Professors Gildersleeve, Price and Curry, and by Hon. W. H. Ruffner. The members of the Association accompanied by friends, to the number of nearly two hundred, visited the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, where they lunched with the Superintendent, Gen. Armstrong. Sailing thence to Old Point Comfort, they reached Fortress Monroe, where they spent an hour or two, returning to Norfolk about ten o'clock in the evening. Altogether the meeting appears to have been pleasant and profitable.

MISCELLANEA.

OUR next number will contain a report of the meeting of the Philological Association.

THE *New York School Journal* has been consolidated with the *College Review* and the *Illustrated Educational News*, under the title of the *New York School Journal and Educational News*. It is much improved in appearance, and has a good staff of writers, one of them being "Prof. Otto of the University of Brunswick, Germany." A residence of some time in Brunswick failed to discover a university there, though there is, we believe, a gymnasium.

THE gross receipts of the Treasurer of the Teachers' and Pupils' Fund of the Agassiz Memorial up to August 11th were \$8,500. In addition to this, the General Committee has collected \$112,000. It is expected that this amount will be largely increased when the schools assemble in the Fall.

HON. NEWTON BATEMAN has been elected president of Knox College, Ill.

WE have lately seen a Miniature Galvanic Battery and Telegraph which teachers will find useful in explaining the telegraph to pupils. The battery is open, and the children may thus easily be made to understand the working of the instrument. In this respect it is an improvement on any we have seen. It is, moreover, very simple in construction, and is not likely to get out of order.

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

Prof. Hiram Orcutt says of **How to Teach** that "its methods are modern and natural; its directions clear and methodical, and sufficiently comprehensive to reach every grade of instruction. No teacher can afford to be without it."

H. D. Todd, Supt. Schools, Keokuk Co., Iowa, writes: "I do not hesitate to say that this is the best book upon the subject of teaching I have ever had the pleasure of examining."

The Sunday School Journal says: "We do not see how a day-school teacher can afford to be without it. It is full of detailed methods—a normal college in itself. Sunday-school teachers may learn a good deal from it."

It is in short the general testimony that **How to Teach** is the best book of its kind ever published.

C. H. Spurgeon, of London, has been engaged as the special contributor of *The Christian at Work*. As he writes for no other paper in America, admirers of this great preacher would do well to send to their publication office, 102 Chambers-street, New York, for specimen copies. *T. De Witt Talmage*, as editor, and *Spurgeon*, as special contributor, make a strong team.

Mrs. Laura B. Humphrey's new book **The Art of Reading Music**, will be found admirably adapted for teaching children to sing at sight. It takes up one difficulty at a time, and thoroughly masters that before attempting another. Published by *J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.*, 14 Bond St., New York.

Teachers will be interested in the advertisement of **Eldredge & Brother**, which appears in the present number.

The Christian Intelligencer says that the author of **Catalogus Plantarum** "has done a difficult work in a most commendable manner, and has thereby made a contribution to botanical science for which he should receive the thanks of all who are pursuing it as students or amateurs."

The N. Y. Weekly Tribune speaks of *Miss Elizabeth Peabody's Kindergarten Guide* as "the most specific and comprehensive work on this new method of teaching children, which is being adopted in all parts of the country."